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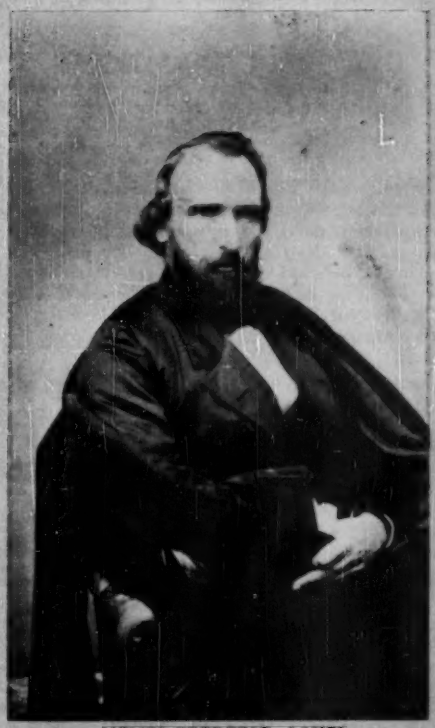

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Education's National Biweekly

Synthesizing Science and Liberal Education[1]

By JOHN T. RETTALIATA
President, Illinois Institute of Technology

THOMAS HENRY HUXLEY, the English biologist and writer, speaking at the opening, in 1880, of Sir Josiah Mason's Science College in Birmingham, observed that in the opinion of the great majority of educated Englishmen of the time, a person versed in branches of knowledge other than literature—particularly that of Greek and Roman antiquity—was to be regarded as a "more or less respectable specialist." The effective reply to a troublesome argument, he related, was to call its author a "mere scientific specialist." He was not "educated."

Thus, attacks on scientific and engineering education as being too narrow, heard so often today, are not new. Nor were they new when Huxley noted the neglect of science in the education of his contemporaries.

The comment we hear today is that scientific and technological education is narrow and lacks the broadening influence of the humanities and the social sciences. One would be very shortsighted, indeed, if he did not acknowledge that engineering education, like other courses of study, needs to be continually reviewed and revised in the light of changing conditions in the social and economic structure.

Thoughtful leaders in technological education concur in the idea that the well-rounded individual is the better equipped to serve the community and the nation. The expanding complexity of civilization and industry—the heavier responsibilities the engineer is being called upon to assume and his increased influence in management decisions—demonstrate that the engineer is no longer an isolated individual working away in his particular field.

The educational process for the engineer must encompass vastly more than the imparting of scientific knowledge and achieving technological competence. He also should be intelligently informed in other areas embracing literature, history, economics, political science, and other subjects relating to the liberal arts field. The leading technological institutions are well equipped to accomplish this objective because they have stronger faculties in the arts and sciences than most liberal arts colleges.

The strengthening of the engineering curriculum in the fields of the humanities and social sciences has been a major development in technological education. Changes and extensions have steadily been effected to broaden the base of engineering education and to build into the engineer the potentialities of widest effectiveness in our industrial civilization. Also, there has been the development of the combined program between the liberal arts colleges and the engineering colleges. Illinois Institute of Technology has such arrangements with some 30 midwestern libberal arts colleges. The student spends the first three years at the liberal arts college and the next two at our institution. At the completion of the five-year period, he receives a bachelor of arts degree from the liberal arts college that he attended and a bachelor of science degree in engineering from Illinois Tech.

The American Society for Engineering Education in 1956 published the results of a study of engineering curricula in which it was revealed that many of our leading engineering colleges have developed carefully planned programs that provide a sound introduction to the humanities while simultaneously reinforcing the student's engineering education. In another report—an evaluation of engineering education covering the years 1952-55, inclusive—the society presented 10 recommendations aimed at the development of engineers capable of meeting both professional and social responsibilities. Three of the recommendations pertinent to this discussion were:

1. The inclusion of elective subjects in the curriculum so as to develop the special talents of individual students, to serve the varied needs of society, and to provide the flexibility of opportunity for gifted students.

2. A continuing, concentrated effort to strengthen and integrate work in the humanistic and social sciences into engineering programs.

3. An insistence upon the development of a high level of performances in the oral, written, and graphical communication of ideas.

The evaluation committee concurred with the recommendations of previous studies that about one-fifth of the curriculum should be devoted to humanistic and social subjects.

Engineering education is not static. Its objective is, and will continue to be, to produce well-educated people who are capable of fulfilling the needs of the times—now and in the future.

Let us look at the other side of the coin. Is the liberal arts program, as found in most institu-

[1] From the president's annual report, 1956-57.

tions, adequate for today's needs? Can a liberal arts program, including little or none of the physical sciences, produce persons qualified to exercise enlightened leadership in today's technological civilizaton? Can such persons be said to have a well-rounded educational background if they lack proper knowledge of science and technology which play a vital role in our existence?

If it is important for the engineer to understand economics and the implications of history, and the arts, certainly it is equally important that the student pursuing a liberal education understand some of the problems and results of science and technology and the facts of the nation's industrial growth.

Our goal must be more understanding by the scientist of social problems and more understanding of science by society generally. Attainment of his goal is essential to the solution of the problems of our complex and advancing technological civilization.

Lack of understanding is the basis of many of our problems. Automation is a timely example. There are among the social scientists those who see the spectre of vast unemployment lurking behind this advance in mechanization, despite evidence that technology is a creator rather than a destroyer of jobs. Enlightenment is needed to comprehend the true role of technology in our economic structure.

The engineer is one who utilizes the forces of nature for the benefit of mankind. His work affects everyone and, therefore, is the concern of everyone, for without changing the nature of things around him, man cannot survive.

Man's material welfare depends upon natural resources—human energy—and tools. Fundamentally, tools are all of the things devised and used by man to improve his material well-being. The United States is the richest nation on earth simply because its technological know-how has provided an abundance of tools for the conversion of natural resources for the general benefit of society.

Technology has made life easier and more enjoyable for all of us. More and more it has shifted the burdens of labor from the muscles of men to machines, an incidence of technology's concern for man's humanity to man. In 1850, 74% of the energy used in production was provided by men and animals and 26% by mechanical power. The average weekly working hours were 70. In 1900, men and beasts provided 48% of the energy and mechanical processes provided 52%. The average of hours worked weekly had declined to 60. At the middle of this century, mechanization provided 94% of the energy and men and animals only six per cent. The work week had been cut one-third to 40 hours.

Americans today are better fed, better clothed, better housed, and enjoy greater comforts than ever before. As a nation, we enjoy a higher standard of living than has been achieved by any other people, anywhere at any time. These are the results of the work of the scientist and engineer—those who have dedicated their intelligence in behalf of mankind. It is important that this fundamental truth be understood by people generally, by teachers, and by graduates of our colleges and universities from whose ranks the great majority of our future leaders will be recruited. It is important, therefore, that education equip students to comprehend the vital role of science and engineering in our economy as a basis for informed judgment.

It should be realized that technology does more than just produce material benefits. It also brings about the support for our cultural activities—the enormous philanthropies and our colleges and universities which enroll more young men and women than in any other country. The technology makes possible the leisure to enrich our lives through cultural pursuits. And, in naional defense, it is the scientist and engineer who provide the means for protecting our material blessings and preserving the political and religious freedom as well as the freedom of thought and of pursuing ideas and ideals . . . which are the crucial ingredients of our way of life and of our success. Thus, technology plays a major role in fulfilling our spiritual needs.

To have a beneficial relationship with our industrial civilization, our colleges and universities must not only impart knowledge to more young people that will help them find the best answers to current and future problems. They also must guide students to acquire, through balanced education, the greater technical competence and social wisdom that is required in order to be an effective participant in today's complex and crowded world. In providing such services, the institutions not only will benefit their graduates, but they will make the essential contribution that will assure the future comforts and probable survival of everyone.

History indicates that science and technology flourish only in an atmosphere of freedom, of respect, and of encouragement. They progress when men with knowledge and inquisitiveness have the opportunity and incentive to think, to experiment, and to create. They make great progress when given a free hand and cooperation.

It is a matter for wide concern, therefore, that while the climate has been most favorable in recent years for great scientific and technological achievements, these accomplishments now outstretch the comprehension of most people. Special steps must be taken to aid the public's understanding to catch up and to prepare people to utilize the new opportunities.

Many issues which preoccupy the political life of our nation are becoming heavily conditioned by scientific considerations and are involved with areas of information which are either unfamiliar or totally unknown to the vast majority of the voters. If a widening gap develops between science and technology on one side, and common understanding on the other, we will endanger the operation of government by the democratic process. Obviously, if the citizens of our nation are to continue to govern themselves wisely, they must have a better understanding of science and its benefits.

Science must be more widely brought into the culture of our time. Educational institutions must provide all future students with more than a smattering of information about it. It should no longer be an elective in the curriculum.

As mentioned previously, engineering education already has broadened its curriculum so that its students may develop as synthesists instead of as specialists. A similar need exists in liberal education, for in an industrial society any program not broadened to the extent of including an understanding of science and technology is not balanced or relevant and, therefore, not liberal.

For civilization's sake the expanding dichotomy between science and liberal education must cease. Motivation for conflict is encouraged by the trend toward more general education in the high school, thus relegating science and mathematics to positions of less significance in the curriculum. The situation is aggravated further by the shortage of science teachers in the secondary schools. One of the great values of a liberal arts program is that it furnishes a link with the past so that experience of the ages can be called upon to influence decisions of the present. If these are to be intelligent decisions, however, they also should embrace current experience which obviously would include science, the greatest single force affecting our lives today.

True liberal education is not a random sampling of ancient cultures. It derives from a planned and balanced program which recognizes the inadequacy of preserving a pattern of specialized study, in some cases designed for preparing last century's clergymen. It allows for the immaturity of young people and guides their choice of electives so as to avoid a cafeteria classics curriculum.

A proper liberal program prescribes areas of learning which permit the student to grasp the significance of tradition and history. Such a program adheres to antiquity because of the wisdom that can be derived therefrom, knowing also that today's events are history tomorrow, thus justifying inclusion of current achievements in science and technology.

A liberal education permits the student to examine his own and other cultures, present as well as past, and science is obviously an intimate part of our present culture. Such an education is dynamic, adapting itself to the current needs of society. It is interested in ideas rather than techniques. It is ever probing for purpose, which means that science, with its steadfast spirit of inquiry, is a logical segment of a liberal education.

Modern liberal education can exclude science no longer. In the past, most of science's research efforts were of a pure or fundamental nature, primarily of interest restricted to the laboratory or classroom. Today the situation has changed to the extent that practically all research is of the applied type, which means it has a current effect on society. The liberally educated man obviously must be cognizant of this effect.

A progressive society has an intimate dependence on scientific research. At no other time in history has there been such a direct relationship between the laboratory and the market place. Entirely new industries are being created through the efforts of science. Surely, an industrial executive, to be effective, should have knowledge of this tremendous force dictating the destiny of his company.

The broadly educated man is of benefit both to business and society. His mature judgment and objective analysis are of great value in arriving at proper decisions. It is interesting to observe, in this regard, the depth of interests possessed by many with scientific backgrounds. In addition to being competent in their major field of endeavor, they also have an appreciation and knowledge of history, literature, art, and music. In contrast, seldom does the humanist, naturally well equipped in these latter areas, also possess a comparable acquaintance with scientific developments.

Industry and education recognize their mutuality of interests and are co-operating with each other to an ever increasing extent. Many colleges and universities conduct special programs for industry. Most of these have been management seminars for industrial executives. In a few cases,

however, supervisory personnel from industry have visited college campuses to pursue executive educational programs concerned exclusively with the liberal arts.

These kinds of conferences are obviously worthy and the results should be beneficial. For further executive development, however, it is believed that an extension of college offerings would be highly desirable. In view of the aforementioned vital role of science in industry and society, it is suggested that corporate managers also attend campus conferences devoted to the relationship of science and technology to modern civilization.

Higher education should strive to develop individuals of the kind described by Alfred North Whitehead, when he stated, "What we should aim at producing is men who possess both culture and expert knowledge in some special direction. Their expert knowledge will give them the ground to start from, and their culture will lead them as deep as philosophy and as high as art."

Technological education already is operating on such a basis. Liberal education should follow suit. When it does, the emerging synthesis will demonstrate that science and liberal education are complementary rather than conflictive.

Higher education has a fateful assignment. It must provide graduates with more technical competence, broaden the scope of specialists, point the way to more social wisdom, and develop in all people a better understanding of science and technology. All of this must be achieved for civilization's advance.

The Public-School Educator Must Choose

By EVAN W. THOMAS
Roosevelt High School, Los Angeles

SKILLED WORKER, job holder, union man engaged in an endless hassle with management for more satisfactory working conditions and higher pay — is this today's teacher? Or is he a professional man concerned primarily with the good of the students and the community, seeking unceasingly for deeper theoretical knowledge and its practical application to significant problems, functioning in a climate of established ethical standards, and knowing, as he makes a dynamic contribution in his field, that he will be adequately recompensed by an appreciative public?

After six years of university preparation with numerous subsequent studies, a teacher refuses to toss aside a professional status for the status of the skilled craftsman. But many are doing just that. Frustrated by the narrow vision of those who have usurped control of public education, and despairing of progress, today's public-school educator is frequently throwing in the sponge and joining with skilled labor.

This decision to substitute unionism for professionalism should be well considered before the change is made. Once the teacher takes the path of least resistance and joins up, it will be difficult to swing back to the role of professional. But there is another way out, one which will lead to far higher ground than unionism.

Teachers — public-school educators — must regain professional status. As this status is regained and established, besetting educational problems will be ameliorated. When the community sees the teacher as a vigorous, devoted, highly capable educator, it will support schools as they should and must be supported. The problem of adequate pay and the very best learning environment will be solved by an appreciative community.

For the teacher to strive for broad-minded board of education members or for Federal funds to build schools is necessary but not enough. Much more important is the necessity for the front-line educator to return to professional standards. This means the development of mastery in a teaching subject. It means strong professional groups in each school who gently but firmly refuse to allow administrators to place them in a teaching situation for which they are inadequately prepared. It means, further, that these grass-roots professional groups will maintain constant liaison with the educational dynamics of today. Codes of ethical behavior will be established and enforced by these professional groups. More and more the emphasis will be on giving to the school and community, rather than getting. It means that within the community, educational direction and leadership will come from those who are the educators.

There is often a large difference between an educator and an administrator. Too often the administrator is not a competent educator. There is no reason why he should be. The task of administration is severe in itself and leaves small room for authoritative educational action. As the teacher becomes the master educator, the control of the educational process will return to him where it belongs.

Further, just as is done by other professional

groups, standards for teachers and methods of selecting candidates will be controlled by professional associations of educators. The untrained now entering education as the bars are let down will be eliminated. Because of the challenge of a difficult training and selection, far more of the good minds among our youth will enter teaching.

As a beginning, we suggest that two, three, or four teachers in a school meet together for discussion and action toward this great goal of high professional status among public-school teachers. The inertia, apathy, and indifference among large numbers of public-school teachers is almost incredible. But the history of any worth-while movement shows that this inertia can be transcended by a few professionally devoted persons.

Before we join the ranks of organized labor, let us pause to weigh the consequences. If we do, sufficient numbers among us will pledge ourselves to a full restoration of public-school education to a superior level of performance. And this upgrading will come from those who are doing the work of education, who believe that professional status is the means of accomplishing this up-grading, and who know that the community will amply reward them for doing splendid work.

Prevalence of Mental Retardates

By J. E. WALLACE WALLIN
Retired State Director of Special Education and Mental Hygiene, Wilmington, Del.

IN VIEW of recurrent statements that from 4-5,000,000 school children are "mentally retarded," I have been frequently asked on my travels whether "such estimates are not gross exaggerations put forth for propaganda purposes?" What are the facts?

The incontestable fact is that we have no exact knowledge of the number of "mentally retarded" children throughout the nation for at least two very patent reasons. First, no nation-wide nor any satisfactory state-wide survey of such children ever has been made. The statistics widely promulgated are mere estimates from local surveys, which usually are based on the distribution of the I.Q.'s of school children. Definitions of mental retardation or mental deficiency so derived are based on purely arbitrary criteria.

In the second place, the concept of mental retardation or mental deficiency is not in terms of a unitary entity any more than the concept of epilepsy or of a headache. Mental deficiency or retardation is not a distinct, simple, homogeneous entity, but a highly complex, heterogeneous condition characterized by many symptoms, many types, many indistinguishable degrees, and many etiologies. No sharp line of cleavage exists between mental normality and mental sub-normality. It is obvious that the prevalence of such a complex is a matter of definition. The concept of "mental retardation," as now usually employed, is particularly nebulous, vague, and ill-defined. The current classifications are far less exact than the older categories and will lead to confusion rather than clarification in our thinking.

But what do the most reliable surveys show? Two of the more careful ones are based on certain areas of England and Wales. The first was made by a committee of the British Royal Commission on the Feeble-Minded and published in 1904. It yielded an estimate of 4.6 deficients per 1,000 of the general population. The second, made in similar areas in 1924 by the British Mental Deficiency Committee, yielded about twice as many, or eight per 1,000. The doubling of the estimate in 1924 is probably due to the use of standardized mental tests in the latter survey (they were not used in 1904 for obvious reasons) rather than to an actual doubling of the incidence of the condition.[1]

As a result of annual surveys during a seven-year period, 1914-1921, in the St. Louis public-school system, the writer concluded that perceptibly less than one per cent of the enrollees were mentally deficient in the socio-economic sense. One of the conspicuous findings was that generalized estimates for a large school system would not apply to the units of that system. Thus, about four times as many deficients were found in the socio-economic inferior areas as in the superior areas of that city.[2] Much later, in 1949, Frances A. Mullen announced similar findings for Chicago: 65% of children recommended for ungraded classes came from 11 areas of the city below par socio-economically.[3] Of course,

[1] J. E. W. Wallin, "Children with Mental and Physical Handicaps" (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1949), p. 37.

[2] J. E. W. Wallin, *Mental Hygiene*, 4: 103-136, Jan., 1920; *Journal of Delinquency*, 8: 170-175, May-July, 1928; "The Education of Handicapped Children" (New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1924), pp. 143-145; and "Education of Mentally Handicapped Children" (New York: Harper, 1955), p. 130.

the number of educational retardates in need of special educational facilities for various reasons was far greater than the number of socio-economic mental deficients.

The chief interest today centers in the prevalence of the children of very limited ability, often arbitrarily designated "trainables." How large is the burden of care and training of these children? A few studies have been made of that problem.

The author, after an examination of 3,644 children between 1921 and 1926 in scores of public-school systems in Ohio, found that the ratio of children with I.Q.'s between 35 and 49 varied in different systems between 1.5 and two per 1,000 of the children enrolled. The findings were based on the actual referrals, most of them attending school.[4] Merrill, in the standardization of the Terman-Merrill Stanford Binet, found that the ratio of I.Q.'s between 30 and 49 was 2.3 per 1,000.[5]

Two special committee investigations have been made recently to determine the number of children of very limited ability, one in five Illinois communities and the other in three Michigan counties. In Illinois, 2.3 per 1,000 children of school age (6-18) were classified as "trainable" (I.Q.'s 20-49), including those at large and those in public and private residential institutions.[6] The corresponding figure for Michigan, based on children five to 19 with I.Q.'s from 20 to 49, was 3.3. It was found in Michigan that 1.5 per 1,000 would not attend special classes. The conclusions reached were that a community of less than 20,000 should not plan to organize a class and that "the class load could be increased to around 15 such children, provided the new admissions do not present discipline problems."[7]

In my extensive visits to privately supported special schools or classes for the so-called trainables since 1953, I have observed some children to be as capable as those regularly admitted to public-school special classes and a limited number who were of normal mentality, with I.Q.'s in the 90's. Some were purely custodial cases, with I.Q.'s as low as 18 or undeterminable.

[4] F. A. Mullen and M. M. Nee, *American Journal of Mental Deficiency*, April, 1952, pp. 777-790.

[5] J. E. W. Wallin, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 19: 21-27, Feb., 1930.

[6] M. A. Merrill, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Dec., 1938, pp. 641-651.

[6] V. L. Nickell, "Report on Study Projects for Trainable Mentally Handicapped Children" (Springfield, Ill.: Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1954), p. 11; and H. Goldstein, "Report Number Two on Study Projects for Trainable Mentally Handicapped Children" (Springfield, Ill.: Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1956), p. 1.

[7] R. J. Guenther, "Interim Report, The Michigan Demonstration Research Project for the Severely Mentally Retarded" (Board of Trustees for Michigan Demonstration Research Project for the Severely Mentally Retarded, Oct., 1955), pp. 22-24; and "Final Report, The Michigan Demonstration Research Project for the Severely Mentally Retarded" (State Advisory Board for Michigan Demonstration Research Project for the Severely Retarded, Aug., 1956), p. 22.

Iran: The Need for Self-Discipline

By PETER F. OLIVA
University of Florida

SELF-DISCIPLINE is that ingredient of a democratic society which requires that each individual be responsible to himself for his own behavior. Without this vital trait, American society as we know it and want it could not exist. Our educational process seeks to inculcate the idea that every man's liberty is limited by that of his fellow man. The maintenance of the effectiveness of the Bill of Rights is essentially an exercise in self-discipline.

No better illustration of the need for self-discipline among the citizenry and for an educational process which actively teaches the merits and methods of self-discipline can be found than present-day Iran. Evidences of a pronounced lack of self-discipline are readily observed in the capital city, Tehran.

One of the most hair-raising experiences for the uninitiated foreigner in Tehran is the manner in which the Iranian drives his vehicles through the city. Cars, trucks, and taxis criss-cross, cut each other off, bleat their horns, and generally induce a bedlam. Iranian Army trucks careen through the streets. Police are ineffective or indifferent in the presence of a traffic jam. In this traffic maze the prevalent attitude of the driver is devil-take-the-hindmost. Self-restraint is considered folly. The democratic concept of the white line in the middle of the road is unknown. The red light is uncommon and the stop sign is a recent innovation which is little understood or observed. The perils of driving in Tehran are but one instance of the results of an educational process which emphasizes individualism above regard for the general welfare of society.

Equally evident to the observer are the high walls which enclose every home. Behind his walls, often in beautiful gardens, the Persian enjoys

nature. Walls ensure privacy and isolation from ugliness outside the enclosure. Walls provide a more secure way of life, but they stifle the human concern for one's fellow man and preclude mutual understanding. Self-discipline is learned in an environment that gives young people opportunities to mix socially and to learn the limits of individualism.

The visitor to Iran, as he looks about his household, is conscious of a difference in more than architectural design, in more than the lack of Western conveniences, which stems from the lack of technology. He is struck by the presence of a lock on every gate and door, every cabinet and desk, and every closet and wardrobe. The key is a symbol of the mutual distrust of Iranian for Iranian and of the absence of self-discipline among the populace. The intense distrust of the Iranian for his fellow Iranian outside of his own family and clan was driven home to the author when, in his capacity as an administrator of an Iranian-American cultural society, he attempted to arrange a conducted tour for members of the society to the summer palaces of the royal family outside of Tehran. Americans, since they were screened through passports and visas, were readily permitted to see the lovely palaces, grounds, and fountains, but the Iranians themselves were pointedly denied this privilege in their own country. Names of Iranians had to be submitted for screening well in advance of the date of the tour.

In Iran nothing can be left unguarded and no house can be left long unattended. No automobile can be safely parked overnight on the street. In fact, automobiles are regularly driven without windshield wipers, hub-caps, or other accessories which can be readily removed. Wiper blades, hubcaps, gasoline tank caps, headlights, and headlight rims are quickly stolen by Tehran's well-organized thieves. However, if the victim is conversant with the Iranian underworld, he will know where to go in the city and buy parts stolen from vehicles, sometimes the very parts stolen from his own vehicle.

Part of this theft can be attributed to the dire povery of the masses in Iran. But part can also be explained by excessive individualism again. Items of little or no value, such as the top of an automobile radio antenna, act as a stimulus in the grand game of thievery. As a result of the prevalence of theft, the guard is an ever-present vocation in Persia. He watches all buildings and automobiles. He is present at all parties. In fact, the police department must be notified in advance of every large gathering so that guards may be provided.

Only through a self-disciplined citizenry can the maximum blessings of democracy prevail for the individual. Disease, as a further illustration of the necessity for self-restraint, is widespread in Iran. Much of this disease could be prevented through an enlightened educational system on both the childhood and adult levels. An educational system for self-discipline would show the man who urinates or spits on the public streets how he may suffer from his act. It would show the person who befouls the open water supply in the "jubes," deep gutters of the streets, how he may fall ill from his own actions or from similar actions of equally irresponsible citizens. It is true that the elements of lack of education and poverty, companion social ills, cannot be eliminated as casual factors in the transmission of contagious diseases. Primary health education of the Iranian public is necessary, but so is a type of general education with self-discipline as its goal.

The need for training in self-discipline amongst the Iranian people is seen in the manner in which social obligations and functions are performed. Where Americans are overly concerned with punctuality and time, Iranians are frequently late for appointments. Pushing, shoving, and jostling one's way to the front are everyday pursuits — indeed, necessities of a highly competitive way of life. The social amenities often do not apply in daily life to deference to one's fellows, even though the Persian language is filled with verbalisms of flowering grace and politeness. In the business world, the Iranian consumer expects to ask the carpenter or electrician or shopkeeper repeatedly to fulfill a task which he has accepted.

Some of the more enlightened Iranians are aware of the noticeable lack of self-discipline on the part of their fellow citizens. In May, 1955, Mrs. Touran Aalam, an Iranian educator, told the American Friends of the Middle East at a luncheon meeting in Washington: "America is a land of individual responsibility and self-discipline, and because of these two principles, it is a land of freedom. . . ." Again, the English-language *Tehran Journal* reported in Sept., 1955, the address of the Iranian Ambassador to the United States at the convention of Iranian students in Madison, Wis.: "Speaking in Persian, Ambassador Entezam stressed the importance of self-discipline in the development of the individual and the country and added that 'so long as we do not have self-discipline, we cannot know what true liberty is. . . .'"

Though the lack of self-discipline amongst the Iranian populace is not unique to Iran, and though these same characteristics can be found elsewhere in the world, including America at times, Iran serves as a case study for the need of

an educational process which is oriented to the development of the self-disciplined citizen. Analysis of another culture, where standards of "right" and "wrong" are different from standards generally accepted in the U.S., should not be interpreted as a condemnation of the culture under analysis as a suitable way of life for itself. Nor should such analysis be viewed as lauding the superiority of one's own culture over another culture. In its own way and with its own achievements (the Persian rug, for example, has never been excelled), every country's culture has an innate superiority of its own. This type of analysis does serve, however, as an objective lesson against which the U.S. can evaluate, assess, and appraise elements of its own culture. By means of this analysis, we can reaffirm the necessity for conscious training in self-discipline as essential to our democratic way of life.

Brameld's View of Perennialism

By ROBERT B. NORDBERG
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One of the most active philosophies in American education is called Reconstructionism. Prof. Theodore Brameld of New York University is among the most articulate and best-known spokesmen for this viewpoint. He is a critic of Thomistic educational theories and others that he calls "Perennialist." This paper is addressed to the chapters on Perennialist theory in Brameld's "Philosophies of Education in Cultural Perspective" (1955). The present writer is an educational psychologist, not a professional philosopher, but his thesis is that certain weaknesses in Brameld's writings are sufficiently elementary that one need not be a professional philosopher to spot them. Philosophy has its rules, but the Reconstructionists seldom follow them.

Philosophy must not beg the question. An example of Brameld's question-begging lies in his treatment of the relationship between Faith and natural reason. Nowhere is this relationship explicitly stated, but it is apparent, as in this passage:

> Despite all the philosophic equipment of modern perennialism, as exhibited by Maritain, for example, the supernatural reality is always present, repeatedly called upon as the final determinant upon which all else depends (p. 301).

The passage assumes that Faith is misguided and sooner or later will clash with reason. This cannot be if Faith is anchored in Revelation from a God Who can neither deceive nor be deceived. Brameld is asserting, in effect, that it is not so anchored. He should say so clearly and make at least a casual effort to prove the point.

Philosophy must not misrepresent the opposition. Brameld misrepresents the Perennialists, presumably because of not really understanding their views. He says, for example, that ". . . philosophy, at the top, depends solely upon its own canons" (p. 306), presenting this as a Catholic view. Catholics regard philosophy as certainly having its own canons and criteria but as being under a kind of negative rule from theology. Again, Brameld declares that Thomism is " . . . the official philosophic doctrine" of the Church (p. 296). The Church has long regarded the basic tenets of Thomism as the best metaphysical system, but other systems also have found a sympathetic hearing under her aegis. Further, Brameld seems to feel that a Perennialist derives his teaching methods entirely from a few metaphysical postulates. An hour spent in a Catholic school would correct this impression. Educational psychology should be *guided* by metaphysics, but we do not *substitute* the latter for the former.

The philosopher must pose issues clearly. Reconstructionism and its parent-philosophy, Instrumentalism, have been characterized from the first by extremes of vagueness and ambiguity. Brameld's treatment of the problem of being (ontology) never poses the issues clearly. He has a sort of wistful respect for Aristotle's hylomorphic theory, but he is ". . . compelled to form a negative evaluation of it" (p. 288). *Is* this a compulsion more than a rational analysis? In a discussion of reality, Brameld states, "What men need above all, says the perennialist, is the guarantee that reality is universal — that it is everywhere and at every moment the same" (p. 299.) This proposition also was a favorite of Dewey's. It makes no distinction between that aspect of reality which is changeless and that aspect which manifestly undergoes constant change. It implies that the Aristotelians confound the universal with reality, which is not true. In discussing nominalism versus realism, Brameld mentions only Platonic realism and the nominalist reaction against it, but not Aristotle's middle ground. Moreover, he says the important task of the mind according to the

Perennialist is to know a thing in its essence, not in its accidents and particulars. But the accidents of a thing are universals no less than its essence. The particular, as such, is not grasped by the intellect. In short, while there is no room to question that Brameld rejects the Scholastic treatment of being, there is every reason to question his comprehension of it.

Philosophy is not apologetics. Reconstructionism is apologetics in that it starts with a kind of socio-political order taken as a self-evident good. Whatever leads towards this order is desirable to the Reconstructionist; whatever leads away from it is undesirable. But the desirability of the order itself is not explained; it is simply postulated. Brameld defines Perennialism as a system which "reacts against the failures and tragedies of our age by regressing or returning to the axiomatic beliefs about reality, knowledge, and value . . . foundational to a much earlier age" (p. 287). (Why "axiomatic"?) He says that to look to the past is not necessarily good or bad in itself, but later reverses himself by declaring that Perennialism "is unsound because, among other reasons, it would turn the clock of history backwards" (p. 289). When he says that Perennialism "must finally be judged in terms of whether or not the kind of culture of which it is the philosophic advocate is ultimately a desirable culture" (p. 347), he leaves one baffled as to what criterion, other than philosophical, one would invoke to determine the ultimate desirability of any social order.

The same rules apply to all philosophers. Prof. Brameld repeatedly says that "concessions made to other philosophies" by Perennialism "are invariably made on its own premises, never on theirs" (p. 288). Oddly, Dr. Brameld expects the Thomists to evaluate Reconstructionism in its own terms but does not evaluate Thomism in Thomistic terms. Most Thomists at least have gone to the trouble to understand the opposition.

Philosophy presupposes objective truth. Brameld does not grant the objectivist view of truth. Indeed, the epistemological foundation of his whole system substitutes consensus for truth. Everything is decided by counting noses. What the Reconstructionist really means by "democracy" is a system in which objective truth and value are replaced by consensus. When Brameld says of the Perennialist, "Were his philosophy to be widely accepted either in politics or in education, democracy would cease" (p. 289), that is the kind of democracy he is talking about. The sooner it ceases, the better! Dr. Brameld asks, "Is the insistence of perennialism that people should conform to a higher authority than themselves a *desirable* choice for our own culture?" (p. 361). Most persons have no instinctive *wish* to conform to anything objective or normative, but if "desirable" means "worthy of desire," it is another matter. The ultimate source of all authority, for the Thomist, is God.

Some of these difficulties about Reconstructionism and similar systems perhaps explain why the Thomistic system *is* perennial and why others come and go. Reconstructionism is already on the way out.

An Eminent Professor Still Teaches

By MARGUERITE HALL ALBJERG
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MANY YEARS AGO Theodore Parker pointed out what Mortimer Adler has more recently affirmed, namely, "The hardest way of learning is by easy reading. But a great book that comes from a great thinker—it is a ship of thoughts, deep-freighted with truth and beauty." "The Journal Intime of Henri-Frédéric Amiel" is such a volume, and even a century later, a number of its passages have singular merit.

Amiel (1821-81) was a well-known professor, a superior literary critic, and an accomplished philosopher. Born and educated in Switzerland, he continued his training in Germany and traveled widely in Europe. From 1849 to 1881, he was the professor of aesthetics and of moral philosophy at the Academy of Geneva. It was during these years that he kept his famous diary, which has been regarded by many as one of the "great books" of the 19th century. Although not written for publication, it was brought out shortly after his death; three years later it was translated from the French by the English novelist, Mrs. Humphry Ward.

Today a few of the comments of this intelligent and introspective man may appear timely and provocative. Several of his ideas challenge especially those concerned with public education in a democratic society.[1] For Amiel was an intellectual aristocrat who saw in the leveling trends of democracy an attempt to make a dogma

of "equality, the principle of mediocrity"; achieve unity through uniformity; have "numbers doing duty for argument"; and "to make society and not conscience the centre of life." However, he insisted he was no opponent of democracy, but simply did not wish "to confound its promises with realities." Furthermore, he believed that the test of every educational, political, or religious institution was the man which it formed. "If a system injures the intelligence, it is bad. If it injures the character it is vicious. If it injures the conscience it is criminal."

In dealing with children, he felt that "self-government with tenderness" was the correct approach. Moreover, "To know how to suggest is the great art of teaching." This implied that one must "learn to read the childish soul" as one might read a piece of music. Furthermore, "The first principle of education is: train yourself; and the first rule to follow if you wish to possess yourself of a child's will is: master your own."

Even in his day, Amiel deplored "our bad and foolish education which does not develop the whole man." Although he recognized the distinct role of "amusement, instruction, [and] morals" in the learning process, he believed that, to obtain the best effects, they must be dealt with separately. "Duty claims obedience," he stated; "study requires application; for amusement, nothing is wanted but good temper. To convert obedience and application into means of amusement is to weaken the will and the intelligence. . . . When the digestion is unspoilt, so much persuading is not necessary to give it a taste for bread."

In his later teaching years, Amiel maintained that "we can only teach others profitably what they already virtually know." Furthermore, he indicated that this principle of education was also a law of history, since "Nations can only be developed on the lines of their tendencies and aptitudes. Try them on any other and they are rebellious and incapable of improvement." Then, too, he argued that even the most perfect institutions could only be expected to "make it possible for individual excellence to develop itself, not that they should produce the excellent individual."

Near the end of his career, as he reflected on the value of the teacher, he observed, "Those who enfranchise the mind render service to man as well as those who persuade the heart." In 1879, at the close of the academic year, he pondered his function as instructor: "My only object is to light up for them [the students] a complicated and difficult subject. I respect myself too much and . . . my class too much, to attempt rhetoric. My role is to help them to understand. . . . A lecturer has nothing to do with paying court to the scholars, or showing off the master; his business is one of serious study and impersonal exposition. . . . A professor is the priest of his subject; he should do the honors of it gravely." It was not surprising that it was said of Amiel, "He came to his desk as to an altar."

Many a discerning educator will probably see wisdom in the reflection of this Genevan professor. "It is by teaching," he noted, "that we teach ourselves, by relating that we observe, by affirming that we examine, by showing that we look, by writing that we think, by pumping that we draw water into the well."

[1] The quotations which follow are used with the permission of The Macmillan Company. They are from "The Journal Intime of Henri-Frédéric Amiel" (London, 1889).

REPORTS

Korean Students in the United States

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DURING the academic year 1956-57, for the first time in history, college and university enrollment statistics in this country included a total of over 2,000 from Korea.[1] The results of the Annual Census of Foreign Students in Institutions of Higher Education indicate that 2,307 Koreans were studying here in 1956-57. In addition to students, 296 Korean interns and residents were reported to be on the house staffs of hospitals in the United States and 10 Korean scholars were attached to the faculties of colleges and universities in this country.

Table 1 shows the number of Korean students at U.S. institutions of higher education each

year, from 1921-22 through 1956-57. Of interest is the rapid rise in numbers during the post-World War II period, especially since the signing of the armistice in Korea in 1953. Of even greater significance, however, is a comparison of the rate of increase of Korean students in attendance at American colleges and universities and of the total foreign student population in this country. In the 12 years since World War II, the total number of foreign students here during an academic year more than quadrupled: 9,462 in 1945-46 and 40,666 in 1956-57. The 1956-57 annual total of Korean students in the United States, on the other hand, is more than 150 times larger than the 1945-46 tally. In 1945-46 and 1946-47, Koreans did not rank numerically among the first 50 nationality groups of foreign students in this country; in the period 1947-48 through 1952-53, they did not appear among the top 20. In 1953-54, the 649 Korean students represented the 14th largest nationality group of foreign students here; in 1954-55 they were the eighth largest nationality group; in 1955-56, the fourth largest; and in 1956-57, only the students from neighboring Canada and those from China outnumbered the 2,307 Koreans at colleges and universities in this country.

TABLE 1

NUMBER OF KOREAN STUDENTS IN THE UNITED STATES, ACCORDING TO ACADEMIC YEAR: 1921-22 THROUGH 1956-57

Academic Year	Number of Korean Students	Academic Year	Number of Korean Students
1921-22	68	1939-40	45
1922-23	98	1940-41	30
1923-24	96	1941-42	*
1924-25	124	1942-43	26
1925-26	123	1943-44	12
1926-27	114	1944-45	17
1927-28	*	1945-46	15
1928-29	149	1946-47	16
1929-30	144	1947-48	57
1930-31	124	1948-49	203
1931-32	119	1949-50	258
1932-33	113	1950-51	302
1933-34	84	1951-52	288
1934-35	94	1952-53	377
1935-36	56	1953-54	649
1936-37	141	1954-55	1,197
1937-38	66	1955-56	1,815
1938-39	149	1956-57	2,307

* Statistics are not available

What they studied. Almost one-third (679) of the Korean students in this country in 1956-57 were reported to be following courses in various fields of the social sciences—among them, 188 in economics, 161 in political science, 84 in international relations, and 62 in sociology. Nearly a fifth (412) of all Korean students reported were in the humanities—among them, 114 in theology and 112 in the creative arts. A total of 379 were reported to be studying engineering, 286 were in the physical and natural sciences, 214 were students of business administration, 181 were in the medical sciences, 89 studied education, 29 took courses in agriculture, and 38 others were in miscellaneous fields or did not supply information on their major field of interest.

The distribution of Korean students in this country according to field of major interest did not parallel the distribution of all foreign students from Far Eastern countries (the largest single regional group of the foreign students in America) or the foreign student population at large. Table 2 shows that almost half of the Korean students took courses in the social sciences and the humanities while the largest percentage of Far Eastern students and of all foreign students studied engineering.

TABLE 2

PERCENTAGE OF KOREAN, ALL FAR EASTERN STUDENTS, AND THE TOTAL FOREIGN STUDENT POPULATION, ACCORDING TO FIELD OF INTEREST, 1956-57

Major Field of Interest Grouping	Korean Students	All Far Eastern Students	Total Foreign Student Population
Engineering	16.4%	20.4%	22.3%
Humanities	17.9	17.2	21.0
Social Sciences	29.4	19.2	14.4
Natural and Physical Sciences	12.4	16.0	13.2
Medical Sciences	7.8	8.9	9.5
Business Administration	9.3	8.7	8.5
Education	3.9	5.4	4.9
Agriculture	1.3	2.4	3.6
Other and No Answer	1.6	1.8	2.6
TOTAL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	(total: 2,307)	(total: 12,949)	(total: 40,666)

The tendency for Koreans to choose courses in the social sciences and the humanities is not a recent phenomenon, although the relative interest shown in these two major field groupings has changed since 1953. During the four-year period, 1953-54 through 1956-57, the social sciences and the humanities have ranked first and second, in that order, among the fields of interest of students from Korea here each year. Partial data for the years prior to 1953 indicate that the largest number of Korean students here each year majored in the humanities; the second largest, in the social sciences.

[1] The 1956-57 statistics are from "Open Doors: A Report on International Exchange," Institute of International Education, 1 East 67th St., New York 21, N. Y., June, 1957, 45 pages, $1.00. Statistics for prior years are from earlier editions of this pamphlet and from the institute's Annual Reports. Statistics for the years before 1945, when Korea was under Japanese control, may be assumed to include only those students claiming Korean nationality. It may also be assumed that, since World War II, only students from southern Korea have come to the United States.

When they came. Available data for the period 1952-53 through 1956-57 indicate that the largest single year's influx of Korean students took place in 1955-56. During the academic year 1955-56, 792 Korean students reported that they had started their studies in this country that year; in 1956-57, 713 were new arrivals; in 1954-55, 602; in 1953-54, 310; and in 1952-53, 180. On the other hand, the results of the 1956-57 census show the largest percentage of Korean students reported to have been studying in this country for three years or more—that is, while 34% of the students reported here in 1956-57 had begun their studies in the U.S. in 1954 or earlier, only 22% of those reported in 1955-56 and 1954-55 and only 23% of those reported in 1953-54 and 27% of those reported in 1952-53 had been studying in this country for three years or more.

Sex, status, and financial support. The majority of the Korean students here last year were male; only 464 of the total reported were female. Similarly, a majority (1,509) were undergraduate students; 628 were graduate students, 141 were special students, and 29 gave no information as to their academic status. Almost half (47%) of the Korean students reported that they were receiving financial assistance from private organizations in the United States or Korea or through U.S. college or university scholarships; 37% stated that they were studying here on their own resources and a much smaller percentage of them reported receiving aid from the U.S. or the Korean government.

In comparison, the largest number of all foreign students (18,373 or 45% of the total) reported using their own funds to finance their studies in this country; only 28% reported organizational or institutional assistance. Among Far Eastern students, a slightly larger number of students were here on their own resources (38%) than were receiving organizational or institutional assistance (37%). Whereas there were more graduate students (46%) than undergraduate students (45%) here from the Far East and over a third (35%) of all foreign students were graduates, only 27% of the Korean students reported their academic status to be in the graduate category. The breakdown of the Korean group according to sex did, however, clearly parallel the larger groupings: 79% of the Koreans were male and 73% and 77% of the Far Eastern students and of the total foreign student population were also male.

In summary, Korean students now comprise the third largest nationality group among all foreign students in the United States; approximately one out of every 20 students from abroad here in 1956-57 was Korean. The single major field of interest which attracted the largest number of these students was the social sciences; some 29% of the Koreans were reported to be studying in this field, as compared to slightly more than 14% of the foreign student population in general. The Korean student here last year was most often reported as being an undergraduate, male, as receiving financial assistance from a private organization or an educational institution, and as having studied in this country since 1954 or earlier.

THE CO-OPERATIVE DOCTORATE

By JOHN R. EMENS
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In 1948, Ball State Teachers College and the School of Education of Indiana University co-operatively organized and put into operation a joint Doctor of Education program. Under this co-operative plan, a student completes his master's degree at either Indiana University or Ball State Teachers College. Following this, he spends about a year taking doctorate level courses at Ball State Teachers College before going to the Indiana University campus for an additional year of research and study to complete the doctorate. After the student has satisfactorily completed all requirements, he is awarded an Ed.D. degree which is conferred jointly by the two institutions. In June, 1957, a similar co-operative program between Ball State Teachers College and Purdue University, leading to a joint Ph.D. degree in the field of education, also was established.

The two joint programs are operated in essentially the same manner. A joint committee, composed of members of the Ball State faculty and the faculty of the co-operating university, guides the student in developing his course program, administering the preliminary examinations and the final examinations. The committee meetings are usually held in Indianapolis. Sometimes they are held on the campuses of the co-operating institutions.

The cross-utilization of teaching and research facilities of Ball State and the co-operating institution provides top-quality programs for those seeking the doctorate. The joint programs have led not only to excellent institutional understandings, but also to a fine working spirit between the staffs of the co-operating institutions.

To the best of the writer's knowledge, these co-operative doctorate programs between Ball State Teachers College and the two state universities are unique in the history of American higher education.

RESEARCH

Sex Differences in High-School Scholarship

By ARWOOD S. NORTHBY
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IT IS WELL KNOWN that the academic performance of girls is superior to that of boys throughout all grade levels. In connection with a comprehensive study of factors significant in the prediction of college success, some interesting data were secured which reveal the size and extent of the difference between sexes as far as high-school scholarship is concerned.

Following the close of the 1956 June commencement, the writer requested the principals of the 96 public or semi-public coeducational high schools throughout Connecticut for rank lists of the 1956 graduating classes. Satisfactory reports were received from 83 high schools. The graduation classes of these schools enrolled 12,826 students (7,037 girls and 5,789 boys). The 13 high schools not included had a senior-class enrollment of 2,609. The data in the study, therefore, include 83% of the total graduates from public coeducational high schools in Connecticut.

In view of the size of the sample, the data can be considered fairly reliable and representative of high schools of the state. Replies were separated into two groups on an alphabetical basis and the distributions of both halves were compared. The differences between each half were so slight that the addition of the data from the remaining high schools would not appreciably change the results.

The boys and girls in each of the classes were separated into deciles according to rank. The results of the tabulation are presented in Tables 1 and 2.

A direct comparison of one sex with the other on the basis of percentages given in Table 2 is questionable in view of the fact that more girls were included than boys. A point should be noted that the decile does not always include exactly 10% of the group. When separating the students of a particular class into deciles, we frequently found instances in which several students had the same rank. When this occurred at the breaking point between deciles, all were placed in the upper category. This procedure resulted in some deciles actually including more

TABLE 1

Graduates of 83 Connecticut High Schools, June, 1956, Classified According to Sex and Class Rank (Decile) with a Percentage Distribution of Each Sex by Decile

Rank in Class		Boys		Girls	
Decile	Percentiles Included	Number	Per Cent of Boys	Number	Per Cent of Girls
X	90 - 99	366	6.3%	930	13.2%
IX	80 - 89	381	6.6%	903	12.8%
VIII	70 - 79	463	8.0%	814	11.6%
VII	60 - 69	495	8.6%	783	11.1%
VI	50 - 59	556	9.6%	738	10.5%
V	40 - 49	604	10.4%	689	9.8%
IV	30 - 39	664	11.5%	612	8.7%
III	20 - 29	692	12.0%	580	8.2%
II	10 - 19	752	13.0%	532	7.6%
I	0 - 9	816	14.1%	456	6.5%
Total		5,789	100 %	7,037	100 %

TABLE 2

Number and Per Cent of Boys and Girls in Each Decile of the Graduation Class, 83 Connecticut High Schools, June, 1956

Decile	Percentiles Included	Boys No.	Boys Per Cent of Decile	Girls No.	Girls Per Cent of Decile	Total
X	90 - 99	366	28.2%	930	71.8%	1,296
IX	80 - 89	381	29.7%	903	70.3%	1,284
VIII	70 - 79	463	36.3%	814	63.7%	1,277
VII	60 - 69	495	38.7%	783	61.3%	1,278
VI	50 - 59	556	43.0%	738	57.0%	1,294
V	40 - 49	604	46.7%	689	53.3%	1,293
IV	30 - 39	664	52.0%	612	48.0%	1,276
III	20 - 29	692	54.4%	580	45.6%	1,272
II	10 - 19	752	58.6%	532	41.4%	1,284
I	0 - 9	816	64.2%	456	35.8%	1,272
Total		5,789	45.1%	7,037	54.9%	12,826

or less than 10%. However, the variations are slight and do not affect the over-all figures.

From these data it is evident that, when rank in graduation class is used as a criterion of high-school academic success, the girls in Connecticut high schools are distinctly superior to the boys. The percentage of the girls in the top decile is more than twice that for the boys. On the other hand, the percentage of the boys found in the bottom 10% of the class was nearly twice as large as that for the girls.

These data point up a problem which college admissions officers will soon encounter. In view of the impending tide of college applicants, admissions requirements most likely will be raised. Since rank in class has been one of the best and most frequently used criteria for college admission, recognition must be given to the relative differences in the standings in class of the two sexes, as far as admission to coeducational colleges is concerned. The situation regarding high-school rank is in inverse proportion to the number of male versus female applicants for admission to college. If rank alone is used for selection to coeducational colleges, the character of these institutions obviously would change markedly.

It is quite likely that, in the light of these facts, changes in college admission requirements will take the form of introducing test requirements, or, if one is now employed, of raising the level needed for admission. We have evidence that this change is already taking place. In Georgia, for example, beginning with September, 1957, all applicants to any of the 15 colleges in the University System of Georgia must take the College Entrance Examination tests as one of the requirements for admission.

Incidentally, when high-school boys and girls are compared on the basis of scores made on a college aptitude test, an intelligence test, or like measure of intellectual capacity, differences between the two sexes are relatively negligible.[1]

[1] F. S. Freeman and C. Miles, "Sex Differences," in W. S. Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (New York: Macmillan, 1950), pp. 1204-05.

BOOKS

EDUCATOR'S BOOKSHELF

WILLIAM W. BRICKMAN
School of Education, New York University

MOSHE AVIDOR. *Education in Israel.* Jerusalem: Zionist Organization, 1957. Pp. 179.
A brief, illustrated introduction to the administration and organization of the Israeli educational system (including Arab schools).

ROBERT H. BONTHIUS, F. JAMES DAVIS, AND J. GARBER DRUSHAL. *The Independent Study Program in the United States.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1957. Pp. xxi, 259. $4.50.
A thorough analysis of improving instruction at the College of Wooster, together with a survey of the development of independent study programs at 20 colleges.

Division of International Education, U. S. Office of Education. *Education in the U.S.S.R.* Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1957. Pp. xiv, 226. $1.25.
This widely publicized report on Soviet education covers the background, administration, and all types of schools. Frequent comparison with American education. Many illustrations, tables, and charts, but a rather brief and inadequate bibliography in English and Russian. A clear, comprehensive, and reasonably up-to-date guide to the Soviet educational system. The documentation could stand improvement.

ARDEN N. FRANDSEN. *How Children Learn: An Educational Psychology.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957. Pp. xv, 546. $5.50.
An illustrated textbook with abundant bibliographies. Sums up research on all phases of child learning. The latest references seem to date from 1954. A useful work of reference.

C. WAYNE GORDON. *The Social System of the High School.* Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1957. Pp. xiii, 184. $4.00.
A sociometric, sociographic, and statistical study which yields conclusions and implications shedding light on the sociology of adolescence.

ORIN B. GRAFF AND CALVIN M. STREET. *Improving Competence in Educational Administration.* New York: Harper, 1956. Pp. xviii, 301. $4.00.
The theoretical basis and the practical applications toward the preparation of a higher type of superintendent of schools who has *competence*, the "desired quality of job performance."

GEORGE L. KLINE, EDITOR. *Soviet Education.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1957. Pp. xi, 192. $3.50.
Eight contributors, all who had taught in the U.S.S.R., describe their experiences. Good supplementary reading to the standard accounts on Soviet schools. Interpretative foreword by George S. Counts.

ALEXANDER G. KOROL. *Soviet Education for Science and Technology.* New York: Wiley, 1957. Pp. xxv, 513. $8.50.
A highly important study of the Soviet 10-year school, technical school, and university, with emphasis on scientific and technological training. Valuable documentary appendix, bibliographies, and index.

ADOLPHE E. MEYER. *An Educational History of the American People.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957. Pp. xx, 444. $6.00.

A well-documented, readably written survey of American education from colonial times to the present. Stress is laid on developments during the 20th century.

PAUL R. MORT AND DONALD H. ROSS. *Principles of School Administration.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957. Pp. xv, 451. $6.00.

The second edition of what has been generally considered a classic textbook on the theory of educational administration. Generously supplied with bibliographies and other teaching aids.

FREDERIC W. NESS, EDITOR. *A Guide to Graduate Study.* Washington, D. C.: Association of American Colleges, 1957. Pp. ix, 335, $5.00.

A *vade-mecum* for the student seeking the Ph.D. The major part of this useful work contains outlines of the doctoral programs at 135 American institutions of higher learning. Good as a "first," but the information is not uniform for all institutions.

H. H. REMMERS AND D. H. RADLER. *The American Teenager.* Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1957. Pp. 267. $3.75.

A popularized summary of the results of the Purdue University Opinion Panel Polls of adolescents since 1940. Teen-age views on school, parents, religion, science, and other problems and issues.

MYLES W. RODEHAVER, WILLIAM B. AXTELL, AND RICHARD E. GROSS. *The Sociology of the School.* New York: Crowell, 1957. Pp. x, 262. $4.00.

A textbook on educational sociology which is rooted in sociological concepts. The final chapter offers brief discussions on current controversial issues in education. In order to make the book readable, the authors have tended at times toward oversimplification.

WILLIAM E. ROSENSTENGEL AND JEFFERSON N. EASTMOND. *School Finance: Its Theory and Practice.* New York: Ronald Press, 1957. Pp. vii, 442. $6.50.

An elementary textbook dealing with historical background, current crisis, basic principles, methods of support, management of funds, and administration of special problems.

GEORGE P. SCHMIDT. *The Liberal Arts College.* New Brunswick, N. J. Rutgers University Press, 1957. Pp. ix, 310. $6.00.

Historical, competently documented, well-written survey of the American college from colonial times to the present, with emphasis on the attempt by the liberal-arts college to maintain its program despite pressure by professional education.

PAUL WOODRING. *A Fourth of a Nation.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957. Pp. vii, 256. $4.50.

The author, who is just about the best-balanced educational critic in the U.S., analyzes contrasting theories and offers his own middle-of-the-road viewpoint. The book deserves careful study by educational administrators (present and future) and interested laymen.

The Yearbook of the Universities of the Commonwealth: 1957. London: Association of Universities of the British Commonwealth, 1957. Pp. ix, 2067. $11.00.

Contains thorough, up-to-date information on the academic work and faculty members of universities in the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, India, and other Commonwealth areas. An indispensable reference volume. Fully indexed.

CORRESPONDENCE

Importance of Preadolescent Science Program

AT THIS BELATED DATE, I would like to comment on an essay, "Augmenting Our Scientific and Engineering Manpower Resources," by James R. Killian, Jr., in the Summer Issue, 1957, of SCHOOL AND SOCIETY.

I respect Dr. Killian's analysis as stated. He aimed at "a goal which should meet our indigenous needs superbly well" and at "patterns that considered first education for the individual." These elements of his analysis seem pertinent and reasonable; they come from a person with a reputation for leadership in the specific training of engineers, scientists, and technicians.

What is disturbing, though, is that his paper reflects no implication that early childhood and elementary school experiences may play a part in improving the scientific and engineering manpower shortage. To one who is continuously concerned with these earlier levels, Dr. Killian's omission seems serious. He states, "One reason we are in trouble now is that some secondary teachers and administrators have placed a low value on science . . ."; similarly, this charge should be leveled against elementary school teachers and administrators.

Killian's omission suggests that early childhood and elementary school experiences play no part in developing scientific interests, curiosities, appreciations, and understandings as well as attitudes that condition aptitude with scientific problem-solving, the intangibles which seem basic to vocational choices of science and engineering. Moreover, had Dr. Killian stated the need of rich science experiences in early childhood and elementary school, it would have been with no apparent vested interest; he is not in the professional

elementary school field, saying what others have said for three decades or more with less than the needed impact.

Dr. Killian makes only one small bow to the elementary school when he says, "We must identify our scientific talent as early as the seventh grade." Such a statement reflects no cognition of Ann Roe's contribution resulting from an intensive search of the backgrounds of 64 "eminently successful, randomly selected, research scientists" to discover the common possible determinants of their success, as reported in "The Making of a Scientist" (1953). Miss Roe points out that the common element which seems most basic is the richness of the types of science experiences characteristic of the scientists' early environments. Dr. Killian shows no understanding of famous youngsters like Bobby Strom, an outstanding television personality in the area of science. He fails to recognize pre-teeners like a grade-school boy I know who is developing a competency in ham radio and remote control circuits.

Concerning the awareness of our educational leadership for needed meaningful science activities in elementary grades, the 32nd Yearbook, "Science Education in American Schools" (1933), of the National Society for the Study of Education, prescribed that elementary and secondary school science programs should be united as a single overall effort, starting with kindergarten and continuing its scope at each turn of its uninterrupted sequence. This statement is now 25 years old.

Today we are more fully aware of these needs in early childhood experiences. Recent research points up the fallacy of the pursuit of the development of scientific attitudes and critical thinking in many collegiate youth; the Jacobs study indicates that the ruts of behavior of many students may be too deep to be changed and redirected. Is it not likely that we would achieve these intangibles if we aim concertedly at the organism when younger and more plastic?

In conclusion, Dr. Killian simply omitted one of the most important facets in this picture—namely, the need of an early childhood and preadolescent program purposefully intended to develop the intangibles of interest, curiosity, appreciation, understanding, and scientific attitudes and aptitudes in all of the children. From this kind of program, it seems likely that more children will develop a potential scientific talent to be discovered by seventh grade.

EVAN C. RICHARDSON
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Majorities Have Rights, Too

J. STEPHEN SHERWIN (SCHOOL AND SOCIETY, Nov. 9, 1957) wishes to abolish Christmas as a public-school holiday because minority groups' integrity is invaded. Granting this premise, let's go all the way. The Declaration of Independence must go. It mentions "Nature's God" in the first paragraph, refers to "their Creator" in the second paragraph, and relies "on the protection of Divine Providence" in the closing paragraph. Is this a "subtle invasion of minority integrity," *i.e.*, of agnostics and atheists? Remove the flag and stop singing "The Star Spangled Banner"! Some religious sects look upon this as idolatry. Abolish the Senior Prom. Some religious sects believe that dancing is sinful. Hence, the prom "has the unhappy effect of setting minority religions apart and directing toward them a silent charge: 'you are different!' "

Federal, state, and local government offices close on Christmas. There is a Star of Bethlehem atop the White House Christmas tree. This is a violation of the "doctrine of the separation of church and state"! Let's abolish the chaplains in the House and Senate. Let's eliminate the chaplain corps in our armed forces. Let's eliminate the flag raising and lowering ceremonies on military posts.

I have the greatest respect for the rights of minorities—I belong to one myself, being a Catholic. But I submit that, if majorities must respect the rights of minorities, minorities must respect the rights of majorities.

REV. EDWARD J. KAMMER, C.M.
Executive Vice-President
DePaul University
Chicago, Ill.

Educational Exchange with Soviet Russia

In December, 1957, several agreements were made between governmental and private agencies in the U.S. with agencies of the U.S.S.R. government for the exchange of educators. During the same month, in a two-way trans-Atlantic radio program involving American university presidents and Soviet higher educational officials, the former were reported as agreeing with the suggestion of Rector Ivan Petrovsky of Moscow State University that professors and students from both countries should be exchanged for periods of one year. The Association of American Colleges and other groups have endorsed the idea. A movement is in the making.

The exchange of teachers and students has had, in general, an honorable history. But there are shortcomings to this practice, as when students and teachers from Germany became propagandists for the Nazi regime.

In the flush of our enthusiasm for getting to know the Russians in a better way than heretofore, let us not overlook the basic and profound differences between two such countries as the U.S.A. and U.S.S.R. Whereas our educational philosophy and orientation have much in common with most countries all over the globe, there is a wide, possibly unbridgeable gulf between our education and that of Soviet Russia. They and we operate out of opposed frames of reference. Russian professors of economics, philosophy, political science, education, psychology, history, and other fields constantly think in terms of a Marxist-Leninist background. Moreover, they very often cite the works of Marx-Engels, Lenin, and even Stalin in their lectures and writings in their diverse disciplines. A Western-oriented professor lacks, as a rule, this orientation. Just how is the American professor to make himself intelligible to his Soviet students and colleagues? How can a Russian professor or teacher make himself clear in an American institution? What about the student from one country who spends a year in a university of the other country? The problem of linguistic adequacy is not even being considered.

Let us grant that it is possible to exchange professorships in such areas in the natural sciences where, except for Lysenkoist biology, Marxism-Leninism does not seem to play a role. In virtually all other fields of study, it does not appear desirable, in view of the deep differences mentioned, to invite Russian professors to our universities or to send our own to teach in U.S.S.R.

The system of mutual visitation for short periods will enable professors of both countries to become acquainted with each other's personalities, ideas, and writings. Perhaps, in due time and as a result of these increasing contacts, the level of mutual understanding will so be raised as to make teaching programs feasible. At the present, however, on the basis of recent talks abroad with Russian professors, we feel that it would be futile to undertake a system of exchanging professorial chairs.—W.W.B.

GIRLS' MOTIVES AND COLLEGE ATTENDANCE

Only 13% of the nation's high-school girls want to go to college primarily to get an intellectual training, revealed Elizabeth M. Douvan, study director at the University of Michigan Survey Research Center. Speaking at the Invitational Conference on Present Status and Prospective Trends of Research on the Education of Women, sponsored by the American Council on Education, Rye, N. Y., Oct. 28, Mrs. Douvan based her remarks on a national random sample study of school girls aged 11 to 18 conducted by the Research Center. She declared:

> At least a third of the girls planning to go to college show little interest in high school achievement, care nothing for the content of their future jobs, are absorbed with interpersonal development, and are hoping for a life centered in the family—a life that may include a general interest in the world, but no focussed intellectual activity. Because we fail to provide adequate channels for gratifying their real aspirations, many girls are forced to assume a pretense of intellectual interest, to enter colleges and universities where they do not want to be, and where they, indeed, do not belong in a time of short supply.

On the basis of girls' vocational aspirations, it is possible to isolate three different types of college aspirants:

> The first is a group for whom college is primarily an intellectual training: these are girls who hope to enter the traditional professions or have a strong interest in some field of science or the arts. They are very concerned with school work now, are strongly oriented toward achievement, and are bound to their job aspirations by interest in the work itself. This group, incidentally, includes a relatively high proportion of girls who are not feminine in a traditional sense. . . .
>
> A second orientation toward college is found in those girls who want jobs that represent professional extensions of the traditional feminine role: jobs in social work, teaching, and nursing. These girls have some interest in achievement but are much more concerned with forming friendships and developing interpersonal skills.
>
> A third category consists of girls who either have no focussed vocational interest or expect to get jobs that do not require academic training beyond high school: glamour jobs, secretarial jobs, and so forth. These girls reveal very little concern with courses in high school, and less preoccupation with achievement in their thoughts about the future. They would like nice people to work with and a chance to travel, but in their image of the future, occupational plans play a much less important part than they do in the plans of either of our other two groups. These are highly social girls who are primarily looking toward marriage and family goals.

The distribution of girls among these three categories, although not surprising, cannot but disappoint the educator: Only 13 per cent of girls who plan to enter college fall in the first group, the academically motivated. Our feminine-professional class is largest, claiming half of the total group, while 37 per cent of the girls who plan to go to college can be said to have no specific academic motivation. The last group, we assume, has exclusively social motives for seeking college training.

There is an interesting class difference among these three groups. The first two are relatively similar in class composition, while the third includes a disproportionate number of girls from middle class homes. Girls from lower class backgrounds who have only social motivation probably give up the college goal relatively early, while the middle class girl can maintain it. Ironically, then, of all three of our groups, the girls with least relevant motivation are objectively in the best position to realize their educational aims.

Mrs. Douvan concluded as follows:

If motivation were the only thing that mattered in college entrance, we would be facing not a mere crisis in education, but something closer to a cataclysm. Only 15 per cent of girls 11 to 18 plan to finish their education with high school. Twenty-five per cent hope to go on, but are not sure they will be able to. A quarter of our sample expect to enter nurses training, secretarial school, or some other training geared to a specific vocation. One out of every three girls in the 11 to 18 year age range wants and hopes to go to college. This is just twice the proportion of girls now attending college.

HIGH-SCHOOL CLASSES FOR THE RETARDED

AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOLS can help retarded teenagers to be happy, useful citizens by special programs tailored around the limited mental abilities of these youngsters, according to John W. Melcher, director, Bureau for Handicapped Children, Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction. He told the University of Chicago conference on "The American High School," Oct. 28, that, although "for some time each of our states has had strong compulsory school attendance laws . . . our American high schools haven't geared the curricular machinery to less capable teen-agers who have found school boring and too unrelated to their practical existence." Moreover, "Every high school with 350 to 400 pupils might feasibly establish a special class to meet the needs of these teen-agers, since each special unit can enroll from 15 to 18 slow learners."

These youngsters should have I.Q's from 60-65 to 80-85, be from 14-19 years old, have the social ability of at least a 10-year-old, have fourth-grade or higher ability in the three R's, be free of major personality disorders, and should feel, with their parents, that such a program is more desirable than either immediate employment or further elementary school special education.

"The high school, where he is with his own age group, is best suited for training the retarded teenager. He can simulate the more sophisticated actions of the secondary school pupils if he is given the opportunity to attend high school." A special program "should give the retarded student the feeling of belonging, a sense of achievement and success, self-sufficiency and opportunity to contribute to the 'common good.'" A work experience program tends to keep the slow learner in school. "It gives him a positive sample of what adult life has to offer and yet impresses him with his need for more education. It affords the special class teacher the opportunity to relate work in the academic areas to the job experiences of his special pupils."

Integrating these special students with regular students "in non-academic activities of the secondary school such as drama, music, athletics and social groups, aids in making them feel they are a part of the school."

Rather than "grant the generalized diploma traditionally given to pupils on completion of the normal high school requirements," and this threatens its academic standards, the secondary school should award these special students "special certificates of attendance, certificates of graduation (from special course of study), or certificates of merit. "In most cases the special program graduates walk across the platform in the same manner as do the pupils with regular diplomas. They receive a document similar in appearance to the diploma of their more competent friends. This formalized recognition of tenaciousness is often a strong, incentive for the slow pupil and is a goal that is obtainable and yet cherished. It also indicates to the potential employer the pupil's ability to master a specially designed sequence of training and experience."

NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE GIFTED

THE FORMATION of the National Council for the Gifted to sponsor and undertake programs of research and advisory work in the education of the gifted was announced Nov 3, 1957, by George Douglas Hofe, president of the new organization's board of trustees. The primary objective of the National Council, according to the initial statement drafted by the group's Advisory Board, is "to work with school systems at all levels (pre-school, elementary, secondary, and college), and to work with colleges in the development of programs for children who have unusual ability in specific areas of work and who in consequence need to be helped beyond the limits of the present program." For the purposes of the work of the National Council, the term "gifted" has been defined by the educational experts of the advisory board to include "those persons with high intelligence who, in addition, possess the potential for unusual performance in any creative or socially useful area of human concern."

The National Council hopes to encourage business concerns, industries, and the professions to co-operate with schools in the development of educational activities, including school or outside experiences, for the development and training of children of high potential. It also plans to provide schools, businesses, industries, and the professions or any lay group with help in developing the post-school opportunities of the gifted.

The council is setting up a central office at 700 Prospect Ave., West Orange, N. J., as a clearing house

for the collection and dissemination of materials and information, to provide consultant service on the education of the gifted, and to arrange conferences on a regional or national level. The Advisory Board of the National Council includes Abel A. Hansen, Teachers College, Columbia University, chairman; Albert I. Oliver, University of Pennsylvania; and Henry W. Holmes, dean emeritus, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University.

PROSPECTS OF FUTURE TEACHER SHORTAGE

ACCORDING TO a nation-wide sampling by the U.S. Office of Education, half of the young men and women who began teaching in the United States in 1956 expect to stop teaching within five years. Thirty per cent of those who were graduated in that year with qualifications to teach did not enter the teaching profession. Only 28% of the men teachers and 14% of the women teachers involved in the survey said they planned to make a life work of classroom teaching. As many as 49% of the men said they planned to remain in the teaching profession but hoped to move on from classroom teaching to other positions, such as administration and supervision. Not more than eight per cent of the women indicated such plans. Marriage was teaching's strongest competitor among the women questioned, 55% saying they expected to leave teaching in order to devote their time to homemaking but that they would want to return to teaching eventually.

The survey shows that, of the teachers who began their careers during the 1956-57 school year, 38% were men and 62% women. Of the men, 65% were married, as compared with 44% of the women. The median age of the men was 25.5 years and of the women 22.8 years. The survey showed a marked preference among the men (68%) for teaching in secondary schools and an even stronger preference among the women (71%) for teaching at the elementary level.

Although a bachelor's degree is usually considered a minimum requirement for the teaching profession, 14% of new teachers began work without that degree. In secondary schools, four per cent of the new teachers lacked the bachelor's degree. At elementary level, where the teacher shortage is most acute, 22% of the new teachers began without a bachelor's degree. In the smaller school districts, those with enrollment under 300, 71% of the beginning elementary teachers did not have a bachelor's degree.

The survey indicates that the median salary of beginning teachers in the country as a whole was $3,600. The lowest median salary, $2,475, was found in school districts having less than 50 pupils. Regionally, median salaries ranged from $2,750 to $4,000.

TV AND CHILDREN

MANY BENEFITS may result from television, the favorite leisure-time pursuit of children, if we guide children to choose programs with greater discrimination and to associate this strong interest with other desirable activities, said Paul Witty, professor of education, Northwestern University, at the fall meeting of the Pennsylvania Council of Teachers of English. In several studies, it became clear that the amount of televiewing is not related closely to intelligence or scholarship. Excessive viewing of TV, however, seems to be associated with somewhat lower academic attainment.

"Although TV does not, on the whole, appear to influence educational attainment markedly," stated Dr. Witty, "teachers and parents report undesirable effects in individual cases. On the other hand, there are children who have been stimulated to do better work because of interest engendered by TV."

Television alone cannot be held responsible for undesirable behavior, since an appraisal of the desirability of televiewing can be made only through a complete case study of each child. Dr. Witty pointed out that surveys reveal elementary-school children devote as much as 20 hours per week to TV, while high-school children average 12 to 14 hours. He suggested that parents work out with their children a time budget.

MAKING TEACHERS LESS DOCILE

SPEAKING before the Plymouth County Teachers Association, Nov. 17, 1957, Lester S. Vander Werf, dean, Northeastern University's College of Education, called for teachers to do some soul searching and reappraise themselves, their colleagues, and their profession. Specifically he made the following major criticisms:

1. Teachers are the most docile group of workers in the world. They continually apologize when asking for salary increases. Yet, according to the Second Report of the President's Committee Beyond The High School, teachers are paying for the education of those they teach, by accepting low salaries.
2. Teachers are the most inadequately organized group in American life. They have more organizations than any segment of the population, but no organization.
3. Teachers are the least well prepared of all professional groups. While it probably takes at least six years to educate a teacher, four years is the common pattern. Using the present teacher shortage as an excuse to avoid such education is entirely irrelevant.
4. Teachers are of a lower mental caliber than members of any of the other professions and are not intelligent enough for the functions they perform. Bright students are not encouraged by parents and teachers to become teachers. Too many people like it this way.
5. Teachers are less critical than they ought to be of other teachers, their work, their research, and their writing. Too many books in the field mimic others. They [the teachers] believe the significant books in education are too difficult or too theoretical.

To help correct such alleged major shortcomings among present teachers and in the teaching profession itself, the dean proposed a sweeping and comprehensive plan of reform which would be based upon the establishment of a professional standards committee and a research committee in each school district and staffed by outstanding teachers. These committees should be concerned with implementing a new code of ethics—such as the one recently adopt-

ed by the Massachusetts Teachers Association, raising standards by better selection of teachers and dismissal of poor ones, insisting on more advanced study for teachers, and showing how better educated teachers lead to better education and how teachers deserve a bigger share of the money spent on education.

In addition, the committees would continually analyze professional literature for significant advances, encourage studies to be done to solve many local school problems, encourage and help sponsor experimentation with such educational problems as multi-grade classes, accelerating students, etc., develop ways to improve and balance the program, encourage the use of experts in all areas of study, and, finally, continually work to encourage teachers to assume greater responsibility, spend more time on such reform measures, and be willing to "stick their necks out."

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U.S. MISTAKES IN EDUCATION

A CRASH PROGRAM of spending in the field of science is not the answer to America's lag in scientific development, according to Ernest O. Melby, distinguished professor of education, Michigan State University. "We can't buy brains and we can't buy a satellite scientist or a physicist. The only way to get a physicist is to start with a child and stick with him until you have a full-fledged physicist in terms of education."

Dr. Melby believes the real reason America fell behind in launching the first "moon" lies in our country's greater emphasis on technical application and practical progress than on the theoretical man and his brains. "In our culture we have failed to respect learning. The Russian education effort is several times our own and they have been exerting themselves in the field of education.

"In America in the past 25 years the scientist has become suspect," says Dr. Melby. "We don't understand what he is doing, so we do not appreciate what he is doing."

A trend of anti-intellectualism has been especially rampant in this country during the past 10 years. "It doesn't seem as if anyone thought that atomic, satellite and guided missile development had anything to do with education. Pouring millions into defense was considered one thing and education an entirely different thing."

Dr. Melby feels it is necessary for people in this country to realize that cultural advancement, defense, scientific advancement and race relations are inseparable. "I believe the events at Little Rock are of more importance than the satellite situation. What happened at Little Rock has hurt America much more than having the Russians first with a satellite."

RECENT *Publications*

The following are 1957 editions, except where indicated otherwise

GRISWOLD, ALFRED W. *In the University Tradition.* Pp. 161. Yale University Press, New Haven, Conn. $3.00.

HAND, HAROLD C., *Principles of Public Secondary Education,* pp. 369, 1958; LAMBERT, HAZEL M., *Teaching the Kindergarten Child,* pp. 339, 1958, $4.25. Harcourt, Brace and Co., New York 17.

HARRELL, LESTER E., JR. *A Comparison of the Development of Oral and Written Language in School-Age Children.* Pp. 77. Child Development Publications, Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.

HOLLIS, ERNEST V., and Associates, *Costs of Attending College: A Study of Student Expenditures and Sources of Income,* pp. 91, 45 cents (paper); WILKINS, THERESA B., *Financial Aid for College Students: Undergraduate,* pp. 232, $1.00. U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

LORD, MILTON E., *et al., Modern Education and Human Values: Pitcairn-Crabbe Foundation Lectures Series,* pp. 128, Vol. VI, $3.00; MORT, PAUL R., *Fiscal Readiness for the Stress of Change: Horace Mann Lecture,* 1957, pp. 97, $1.00; YOUNG, ARTHUR M., *The Voice That Speaketh Clear,* pp. 106, $3.50. University of Pittsburgh Press, Pittsburgh, Pa.

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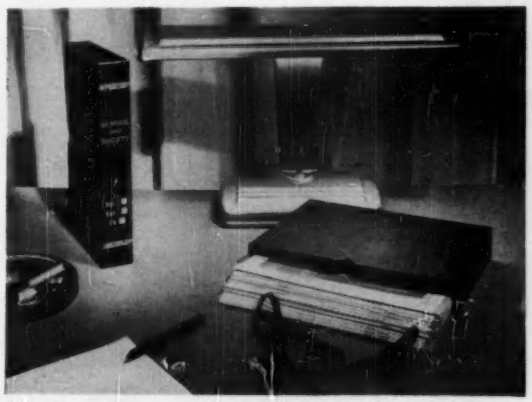

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